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Enhancing the electrochemical performance of Li-rich layered oxide $Li_{1.13}Ni_{0.3}Mn_{0.57}O_2$ via WO₃ doping and accompanying spontaneous surface phase formation



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HIGHLIGHTS

- WO3 doping improves the Li1.13Ni0.3Mn0.57O2 performance via forming a surface phase.
- The surface phase forms spontaneously via a facile mixing and annealing route.
- The surface phase has distinct structure, composition, and valence state.
- The discharge capacity is increased by ~13% at C/20 and by ~200% at 40C.
- The spontaneously-formed surface phase also improves the cycling stability.

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ABSTRACT

WO₃ doping and accompanying spontaneous formation of a surface phase can substantially improve the discharge capacity, rate capability, and cycling stability of Co-free Li-rich layered oxide Li_{1.13}Ni_{0.3}Mn_{0.57}O₂ cathode material. X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy, in conjunction with ion sputtering, shows that W segregates to the particle surfaces, decreases the surface Ni/Mn ratio, and changes the surface valence state. High-resolution transmission electron microscopy further suggests that W segregation increases surface structural disorder. The spontaneous and simultaneous changes in the surface structure, composition, and valence state represent the formation of a surface phase (complexion) as the preferred surface thermodynamic state. Consequently, the averaged discharge capacity is increased by ~13% from 251 to 284 mAh g⁻¹ at a low rate of C/20 and by ~200% from 30 to 90 mAh g⁻¹ at a high rate of 40C, in comparison with an undoped specimen processed under identical conditions. Moreover, after 100 cycles at a charge/discharge rate of 1C, the WO₃ doped specimen retained a discharge capacity of 188 mAh g⁻¹, being 27% higher than that of the undoped specimen. In a broader context, this work exemplifies an opportunity of utilizing spontaneously-formed surface phases as a scalable and cost-effective method to improve materials properties.

1. Introduction

Li- and Mn-rich layered oxides $xLi(Li_{1/3}Mn_{2/3})O_2(1-x)LiMO_2$ (that can alternatively be expressed as $xLi_2MnO_3\cdot(1-x)LiMO_2$) (0 < x < 1; M = Mn, Ni, Co) are promising candidates of next-generation cathode materials for lithium ion batteries due to their high specific capacity of > 280 mAh g⁻¹; with an average discharge voltage of ~ 3.6 V, this capacity corresponds to an energy density of > 1000 Wh kg⁻¹ [1–3]. The Li-rich layered oxides are also low cost and environmentally friendly due to the reducing of Co content in their composition. However, the practical applications of these layered oxides are still hindered by the irreversible capacity loss in the first cycle, the subsequent poor cycling stability, the low rate capability, and the voltage fading [4-6].

It is interesting to note that the above-mentioned challenging electrochemical properties can be highly affected by the surface properties of the Li-rich layered oxides. The significant irreversible capacity loss in the first cycle is believed to be resulted from formation of oxygen vacancies [7,8] and/or the occupation of lithium sites by transition metal ions on the surfaces (when the cathode is charged over 4.4 V) [9], which subsequently triggers an irreversible surface phase-like transition from the layered structure to a spinel-like structure [1,9–11]. Moreover, the rate capability can also be explained by the above-mentioned surface structure/chemistry changes as the lithium diffusion path could be partially blocked by the occupancy of lithium layer sites by transition

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metal cations [5,6,9,12–17]. Hence, surface modifications could be an effective way to improve electrochemical performance of Li-rich layered cathode materials. Here, we explore the possibility of utilizing WO_3 segregation induced formation of a surface phase (also known as "complexion" [18,19]) with structure and chemistry that are markedly different from those inside a bulk phase as a spontaneous surface modification method to improve the properties.

Recently, Sathiya et al. reported that Ru(4d) substitution of M(3d)in Li₂ MO_3 in the bulk phase can significantly relieve the first-cycle irreversible capacity loss, voltage fade and cycling decay [20–22]. A density functional theory calculation suggested that a strong covalent character of the *M*-O bond would likely promote reversible high capacity of Li-rich layered oxides, which can be achieved by substituting *M* (3d) with M(4d, 5d) metal cations [23] because M(4d, 5d)-O are stronger covalent bonds that enhance the structural stability of Li₂ MO_3 and reduce voltage fade during cycling. However, the rate capability of M(4d, 5d) substituted Li-rich layered oxides are generally poor (< 50 mAh g⁻¹ at 5C) and these materials are more expensive due to the use of noble metals. Thus, simultaneous achieving high discharge capacity, stable voltage during cycling, and low cost remains a major challenge.

In this study, we used a small amount of WO₃ (a 5d transition metal oxide) to "surface dope" a Li-rich layered oxide. WO3 is selected because it has a low surface free energy and tend to spread spontaneously on the surfaces of other oxides (such as TiO2 and ZrO2) during annealing (i.e., segregate or adsorb at the surface thermodynamically that may also change the surface structure and other chemistry, e.g., the critical surface Ni/Mn ratio in this case); such surface phases can form spontaneously as the thermodynamically-preferred surface states via a facile and cost-effective "mixing and annealing" procedure that is employed widely to make so-called "supported oxide catalysts" or "monolayer catalysts" in the petroleum and chemical industries [24-26]. As a result, these WO₃ doped specimens exhibit improved rate capabilities (e.g., retaining a capacity of 90 mAh g^{-1} at a high discharge rate of 40C that represent a 200% improvement from the undoped specimens) and cycling stability as well as reduced voltage fading, in comparison with an undoped benchmark specimen prepared using the identical ball milling and annealing procedure. The improvements are attributed to an appreciable surface chemistry change, i.e., W segregation along with a reversed surface Ni/Mn ratio in comparison with undoped specimen, as revealed by X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) in conjunction with ion sputtering, accompanying with simultaneous surface structural disordering and surface valence change, induced by as low as ~1 vol % WO₃ doping.

2. Experimental

The Li-rich prepared by coprecipitation method which is described in our previous publications [4,6]. To prepare 1 vol % WO₃ doped Li_{1.13}Ni_{0.3}Mn_{0.57}O₂ (where the volume percentage was calculated based on the molar volumes before mixing and the overall chemical composition is 0.4Li(Li_{1/3}Mn_{2/3})O₂·0.6LiMn_{1/2}Ni_{1/2}O₂·0.04WO₃), 0.132 g (NH₄)₂WO₄ (Alfa Aesar, 99.99%) precursor (that decomposes to WO₃ upon annealing) was added to 3 g of pristine Li113Ni0.3Mn0.57O2 and dispersed in 4 ml of acetone. The mixture was placed in a silicon nitride grinding vial with two silicon nitride balls. High-energy ball milling was carried out using a SPEX 8000D mill for a duration of 10 min, followed by a 15-min resting interval; this milling process was repeated for 3 times. The mixture was dried in an oven isothermally at around 70 °C. The dried powder was placed in a covered alumina crucible, isothermally annealed at 800 °C for 4 h in a box furnace in air with a heating rate of 5 °C/min; subsequently, the specimens were furnace quenched. As a reference, a controlled specimen of undoped Li1,13Ni0,3Mn0.57O2 was prepared with the same ball milling and annealing procedure described above without the addition of the WO₃ precursor.

X-ray diffraction (XRD) was carried out on a diffractometer using Cu K_{α} radiation ($\lambda = 1.5418$ Å) operating at 40 kV and 40 mA with a step size of 0.02° and a step time of 1 s. XRD data analysis was carried out by Rietveld refinement method using FullProf software. Particle sizes and morphologies were characterized using a FEI XL30 scanning electron microscope (SEM).

The surface composition and depth profile of the WO₃ doped Li_{1.13}Ni_{0.3}Mn_{0.57}O₂ particles were characterized by XPS. The XPS experiments were carried out by using a Kratos AXIS ULTRA DLD XPS system equipped with an Al K α monochromated X-ray source and a 165 mm mean radius electron energy hemispherical analyzer. 4 keV Ar ion beam was used for sputtering. The sample current was ~4 μ A. Depth profile data were collected after sputtering time of 2 s, 5 s, 10 s, 30 s, and 90 s. The XPS characterization provided the overall surface composition and depth profiles that are averages of many different particles and crystalline facets. All XPS measurements were collected with a 300 mm × 700 mm spot size using a charge neutralizer during acquisition. Survey scans were collected with a 1.0 eV step size, and were followed by high resolution scans with a step size of 0.05 eV for Mn 3p, Ni 2p, and W 4d region. Bonding Energies were calibrated using C 1s peak of 284.6 eV.

Particle surfaces were characterized by high-resolution transmission electron microscopy (HRTEM) using a FEI Titan 80–300 microscope at 300 kV. HRTEM specimens were prepared by dispersing powders ultrasonically in acetone and dropping a small amount of the suspension onto carbon coated copper grids; the specimens were then dried overnight in a desiccator. Minimum exposure was used during HRTEM to reduce electron beam damage.

To prepare cathodes, 80 wt. % active materials, 15 wt. % carbon black (MTI), 5 wt. % PVDF (MTI), and an appropriate amount of NMP (Alfa Aesar, anhydrous, 99.5%) were mixed in a glass vial by a vibrating mixer, followed by ultrasonic dispersion. The mixture was coated on an aluminum foil, which was subsequently dried in a vacuum oven at 90 °C for 6 h. Cathode electrodes with a diameter of 10 mm were punched out, pressed at ~187 MPa, and dried in a vacuum oven at 120 °C for 8 h before transferring into an Ar-filled glovebox for battery construction. The area density of dried electrode coating is ~2.5 mg cm⁻². Half cells were made with a cathode electrode, a metal Li chip (MTI, 99.9%) as the anode, 1 M LiPF₆ in EC/DMC 1:1 vol electrolyte LP 30, BASF), C480 separator (Celgard), and 2032 coin cell cases (SS304, MTI).

Electrochemical cycling tests were carried out on an Arbin 2143 tester. The rate performance of specimens was tested at the discharge rates of C/20, C/10, C/2, 1C, 2C, 5C, 10C, 20C, 40C, 60C, 80C, 100C, and C/10 sequentially (1C equates to 250 mA h g⁻¹; 1 cycle at each discharge rate) with a constant charge rate of C/10 at room temperature. The cycling stability of Li_{1.13}Ni_{0.3}Mn_{0.57}O₂ specimens were measured at a constant charge and discharge rate of 1C between 2.0 V and 4.8 V at room temperature. Electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) was performed using a Solartron 1287A/1255B analyzer measured from 1 MHz to 0.05 Hz at 10 mV. Cells after the testing were charged to 4.8 V at C/10 and kept for 10 h for subsequent impedance measurements. The EIS data were fitted with the ZView software in the frequency range of 10^5 –10 Hz.

3. Results

No obvious difference of particle morphology between undoped and WO₃ doped Li_{1.13}Ni_{0.3}Mn_{0.57}O₂ was observed, as shown in Fig. 1. Both specimens have similar agglomerated secondary particles (Fig. 1(a) and (c)). The measured primary particle sizes are 89.8 \pm 36.9 nm for the undoped specimen and 88.2 \pm 30.5 nm for the WO₃ doped specimen, respectively; the representative SEM images are shown in Fig. 1(b) and (d). The difference in the measured particle sizes is within the range of measurement errors and negligible. Moreover, the primary particles of both undoped and doped specimens have similar round morphology without observed faceting. Hence, a fair comparison study of



electrochemical performance between undoped and doped specimens can be conducted without significant effects of the particle size and morphology.

XRD results reveal only $Li_{1.13}Ni_{0.3}Mn_{0.57}O_2$ peaks in both undoped and WO₃ doped specimens, as shown in Fig. 2. All peaks are indexed to the $R\overline{3}m$ space group that corresponds to the LiMO₂ structure, except



Fig. 2. X-ray diffraction pattern of (a) undoped and (b) WO_3 doped $Li_{1.13}Ni_{0.3}Mn_{0.57}O_2.$ Rietveld refinements have been formed.



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Fig. 1. SEM micrographs of particle morphologies of (a, b) undoped and (c, d) WO_3 doped $Li_{1.13}Ni_{0.3}Mn_{0.57}O_2$.



Fig. 3. The rate performance of undoped and doped specimens. Charge/discharge curves of (a) undoped and (b) WO₃ doped Li_{1.13}Ni_{0.3}Mn_{0.57}O₂ at various rates. The black lines represent the initial change/discharge curves tested at C/20 $(1C = 250 \text{ mAh g}^{-1})$ and color lines show subsequent discharge curves at various rates labeled in the graph (with a constant charge rate of C/5). (c) Rate capabilities of undoped (red circles) and WO3 doped (blue triangles) Li1.13Ni0.3Mn0.57O2. Three coin cells were made and tested for each specimen. The means are presented and error bars represent ± one standard deviations. (d) Electrochemical impedance spectra of undoped (red circles) and WO3 doped (blue triangles) Li1 13Ni0 3Mn0 57O2. The fittings were based on the equivalent circuit shown in the inset. All tests were performed at room temperature in a voltage window of 2.0-4.8 V. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

c = 14.262(2) Å. The slight increases in the lattice parameters of the WO₃ doped specimen indicates the W is successfully doped into the Lirich.

A comparison of Fig. 3(a) and Fig. 3(b) shows that the WO₃ doped specimen has a higher initial discharge capacity tested at C/20 and room temperature. On one hand, the first-cycle charge and discharge capacities for the undoped specimen are 363 and 251 mAh g⁻¹, respectively, with a coulombic efficiency of 69%, which are consistent with the typical values reported in prior studies [10,27,28]. On the other hand, the WO₃ doped specimen has charge and discharge capacities of 350 and 284 mAh g⁻¹, respectively, with an improved coulombic efficiency of 81% (representing a 12% increase from that of the undoped specimen). Correspondingly, the reversible discharge capacity is increased by 33 mAh g⁻¹ or 13% with as low as 1 vol % WO₃ doping, in comparison with that of the undoped specimen.

The WO₃ doping improves the rate capability significantly. With WO₃ doping, the discharge capacity is increased from 164 to 198 mAh g⁻¹ (by ~21%) at 5C, and from 30 to 90 mAh g⁻¹ (by ~200%) at 40C on an average as shown in Fig. 3(c). The cells after the rate performance test were characterized by electrochemical impedance spectroscopy (EIS) and the spectra are shown in Fig. 3(d). The EIS results have revealed that the WO₃ doped specimen has smaller total resistance than that of the undoped specimen. After WO₃ doping, the charge transfer resistance decreases from 66.6 Ω to 18.9 Ω , while the surface film resistance in fact increases from 3.5 Ω to 13.3 Ω ; thus, the total resistance decreases from 70.1 Ω to 32.2 Ω by 54% with WO₃ doping.

The cycling stability is also enhanced by WO₃ doping, as shown in Fig. 4. The WO₃ doped specimen maintains a discharge capacity of 188 mAh g⁻¹ after 100 cycles at a relatively high charge and discharge rate of 1C, which is about 27% higher than that of the undoped specimen (Fig. 4(a)). This improved cycling stability is comparable with some of the best reported performance in literature [12,27]. Furthermore, the voltage fading is also mitigated significantly by minor WO₃ doping, which is in Fig. 4(b). Consequently, an energy density of

~664.6 Wh kg⁻¹ is achieved after 100 cycles at 1C, which represents an ~30% improvement from the undoped specimen (Fig. 4(c)).

Figs. 5 and 6 shows XPS results of the undoped and doped specimens. XPS spectra were collected before ion sputtering and after sputtering for 2 s, 5 s, 10 s, 30 s and 90 s. The sputtering rate was calibrated to be about 30 nm per min using a SiO₂ reference specimen sputtered at the same experimental condition [29]. We believe that the W segregation occurs on the surfaces of the primary particles at a thermodynamic equilibrium during the annealing; the secondary particles are essentially agglomeration of the primary particles. The XPS signals were collected from a large area of 300 mm \times 700 mm to represent the overall averaged results from many particle surfaces.

The observed W $4d_{5/2}$ peak before sputtering in Fig. 5(a) suggests that most W cations at the surfaces are W⁵⁺ in doped Li_{1.13}Ni_{0.3}Mn_{0.57}O₂ instead of the more stable W⁶⁺ in WO₃. The binding energies of the W⁶⁺, W⁵⁺, and W⁴⁺ cations, respectively, correspond to are 248.2, 245.7 and 243.5 eV, respectively [30]; the brown, blue, and green lines, respectively, are the fitted peaks for the W⁶⁺, W⁵⁺, and W⁴⁺ cations, respectively [30]; the brown, blue, and green lines, respectively. Specifically, W⁵⁺ has the highest atomic ratio of 73 ± 7%, in comparison with 16 ± 8% of W⁶⁺ and 11 ± 3% of W⁴⁺. Furthermore, the binding energy of W $4f_{7/2}$ shifts from 35.1 eV to 35.3 eV after sputtering (Fig. 5(b)) [31], which indicates that W valence increases with sputtering time; in other words, W⁶⁺ cations (representing the most stable valent of W in bulk phase like WO₃) likely dominate in the bulk phase, while W⁵⁺ cations could dominate at the surfaces. In summary, the majority W cations are reduced from W⁶⁺ (in the bulk phase) to W⁵⁺ at the surface.

For both undoped and doped specimens, the binding energy of Mn 3p peak before sputtering is ~49.7 eV, which shifted to ~48.2 eV after sputtering 90 s (Fig. 6(a) and (c)); the decrease of binding energy with the sputtering time represents a decrease of Mn valence, which indicates an increase of Mn^{3+} concentration from surface to bulk, though Mn^{4+} still dominates inside the bulk phase [32,33]. Fig. 6(b) and (d) also show that the binding energy of Ni peaks do not change with sputtering time for both specimens.



Fig. 4. The cycling performances of undoped (red circles) and WO3 doped (blue triangles) Li113Ni03Mn057O2 specimens, where the solid and hollow symbols represent charge and discharge performances, respectively. (a) The specific capacity vs. cycle number curves, where Coulombic efficiencies are also plotted using smaller symbols. Insert is the replotted Coulombic efficiency in a smaller range of 90%-101%. (b) Average voltage fading and (c) energy density vs. cycle number curves. Both undoped and doped specimens were cycled at a charge/discharge rate of 1C at room temperature in the voltage window of 2.0-4.8 V. (For interpretation of the references to colour in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article.)

100

0 s

2 s

5 s

10 s

30 s 90 s

30

Fig. 5. X-ray photoelectron spectrum of (a) W4d_{5/2} before sputtering and (b) W 4f of doped specimen. (c) Ni/Mn and W/Mn atomic ratios vs. sputtering time for undoped and WO₃ doped Li_{1.13}Ni_{0.3}Mn_{0.57}O₂. Noting that the sputtering rate was calibrated to be about 30 nm per min (0.5 nm per second) using a SiO₂ reference specimen sputtered at the same experimental condition.

XPS in conjunction with sputtering also shows the surface segregation (enrichment) of W (Fig. 5(c)), while W is also present inside the bulk phase. Furthermore, the surface segregation of W leads to a decrease of Ni/Mn ratio on the surface; interestingly, the surface of the undoped specimen is enriched with Ni, whereas the surface of the WO₃ doped specimen is enriched of Mn.

structure/disorder, composition and valence towards the thermodynamically preferred surface state), along with bulk doping, as facile and scalable method to enhance the electrochemical performance of cathode materials.

4. Discussion

This work exemplifies an opportunity to use spontaneously-formed surface phases (with simultaneous and spontaneous changes in surface

Summarizing the results shown in Fig. 5, we know that (1) Ni





Fig. 7. HRTEM images of **(a)** undoped and **(b, c)** WO₃ doped $\text{Li}_{1,13}\text{Ni}_{0.3}\text{Mn}_{0.57}\text{O}_2$. Both undoped and doped specimens were fabricated via an identical procedure by ball milling and subsequently annealed at 800 [°]C for 4 h. The "vapor" shown in the pictures means that the specimen was exposed in a vacuum environment during the observation. The region above specimen in Fig. 7(a) was amorphous carbon on the grid since the sample was prepared on a copper grid with carbon film coating.

segregates at the surfaces in the undoped specimen; (2) W segregates at the surfaces with a surface reduction (W^{6+} inside the bulk phase *vs.* predominately W^{5+} at the surface), and (3) the surface segregation of W suppresses the surface segregation of Ni to increase (reverse) the relative surface Ni/Mn ratio (w.r.t. that in the bulk phase) in comparison with the undoped surface (Fig. 5(c) noting the absolute surface Mn cation ratio may not increase because of surface enrichment of W). Furthermore, HRTEM images (Fig. 7) show that the surfaces of WO₃ doped specimen is more disordered than that of the undoped specimen.

Noting that we carefully monitored the change of surfaces during the HRTEM imaging and we did not observe the any amorphization or other significant damages during the observation so that the disordering was not caused by the beam irradiation under HRTEM.

Such a unique surface configuration in the WO₃ doped Li1.13Ni0.3Mn0.57O2 formed spontaneously (during annealing) as the equilibrium surface thermodynamic state with its own thermodynamically-determined chemistry (composition and valence states: Fig. 5) and structure (more disordered; Fig. 7) that are markedly different from those of the underneath bulk phase. Thus, the thermodynamically-determined surface state can be considered as a 2-D surface phase (also called "complexion" to differentiate it from a thin surface layer/coating of a bulk phase [19,34,35]), akin to those nanoscale surface amorphous films (SAFs) [18,36-38] and other surface complexions [39] previously observed to form in a few other battery materials that improved the rate capabilities [18,36,38-40] and cycling stabilities [18]. In contrast to the prior cases of phosphate-based, nanometer-thick SAFs that are discrete in HRTEM, the 2-D surface phase observed in the WO3 doped Li1.13Ni0.3Mn0.57O2 appears to have more gradually-varying profiles of composition and structures (Figs. 3 and 4). Nonetheless, this surface phase observed in the WO₃ doped Li1,13Ni0,3Mn0.57O2 in this study can also contribute to improved rate capability and cycling stability as well as reduced charge transfer and voltage fading (similar to other types of surface phases [18,36,38-40]). Specifically, several possible benefits of this surface phase can be discussed.

In the first charge, the region below ~4.4 V is usually attributed to a reversible Ni²⁺/Ni⁴⁺ oxidation, corresponding to the lithium extraction from the lithium layer [5]. The plateau above 4.4 V is attributed to a partially reversible anionic O²⁻/O^{2-x} and irreversible oxygen loss, corresponding to the lithium extraction from the lithium layer and transition metal layer with oxygen vacancy formation, which will inevitably lead to the migration of transition metal cations from the transition metal layer to the lithium layer [3,12,41]. Consequently, there is always a high irreversible capacity observed in the first cycle of Li-rich. A prior study showed that in the Li₂Ru_xMn_{1-x}O₃ with Ru partial substitution of Mn, a Ru⁵⁺/Ru⁴⁺ redox was accompanied by the O²⁻/ O^- redox processes [22]. It is also suggested that M(4d, 5d)-O bonds are stronger than those of M(3d)-O and can enhance the M-O covalency and structural stability of Li₂MO₃ [23]. Likewise, W doping in Li_{1.13}Ni_{0.3}Mn_{0.57}O₂ phase (as well as the spontaneous formation of WO₃ segregation induced surface phase) may also have similar stabilization effects as those of Ru. Specifically, W has a higher formation enthalpy of W-O (~598-632 kJ mol⁻¹) than that of Mn-O (~402 kJ mol⁻¹) and Ni-O (391.6 kJ mol⁻¹), which may strengthen the M-O covalency and reduce oxygen release from breaking M-O bonds (via promoting reversible $M-O^2/M-O^{2-x}$ redox instead of oxygen loss from lattice structure) [20]. In this work, the first cycle irreversible capacity of Lirich is significantly reduced from 112 mAh g^{-1} to 66 mAh g^{-1} by W doping. At the same time, the reversible discharge capacity of W doped specimen shows 33 mAh g^{-1} enhancement than the undoped specimen. All these facts suggest that the W doping may suppress the irreversible oxygen loss and facilitate the reversible O^{2-}/O^{-} redox processes, which could help to maintain the structural stability of Li-rich and further improve the cycling performance.

The low oxidation state cation (Ni²⁺) migration to the lithium layer blocks the lithium diffusion during electrochemical charge and discharge, which leads to poor rate capability. The existence of oxygen vacancy facilitates this cation migration [7]. In this work, it appears that WO₃ doping and surface segregation decreases the Ni content at the surface. As a consequence, the transition metal migration might be suppressed, results in an improved rate performance of Li-rich [3].

5. Conclusions

As low as 1 vol % WO₃ doping can simultaneously enhance the reversible capacity in the first cycle, the rate capability, and the cycling stability, as well as reduce voltage fading, of the Li_{1.13}Ni_{0.3}Mn_{0.57}O₂ cathode material. XPS (with depth profiling) and HRTEM characterizations showed that W segregates at the particle surfaces, occurring concurrently with a surface reduction of W, a change of surface Ni/Mn ratio, and surface structural disordering. Consequently, a thermodynamically-preferred surface structure forms spontaneously, which can be considered as a surface phase or complexion. The spontaneous formation of this surface phase benefits both cycling stability and rate capability. It is further suggested that the stronger covalent character of the W-O bond could alleviate oxygen loss on the surface and the migration of the transition metal cations.

This work suggests, and subsequently exemplifies, a new strategy of improving the performance of Li-rich layered oxide and potentially other cathode and anode materials via a facile and cost-effective "mixing and annealing" procedure to enable their uses in the nextgeneration batteries thru the spontaneous formation of thermodynamically-preferred surface phases.

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